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# 1 Relationship between gilt behavior and meat quality using principal component analysis

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## 12Abstract

13 Pig on-farm behavior has important repercussions on pig welfare and performance, but  
14generally its relationship with meat quality is not well understood. We used principal  
15component analysis to determine the relationship between meat quality traits, feeding patterns,  
16scale activity, and number of conflict-avoidance interactions. The first principal component  
17indicated that gilts with greater daily feed intake stayed longer in the feeder and their meat  
18had increased intramuscular fat (IMF), was lighter in color, and, in the second principal  
19component, had better juiciness, tenderness, chewiness, and flavor. Meat from gilts with lower  
20scale activity scores appeared to have more IMF but greater drip losses (DL). The third  
21principal component suggested that dominant gilts could gain priority access to the feeder,  
22eating more and growing fatter. In conclusion, gilt scale activity and conflict-avoidance  
23behaviors were not good indicators of final meat quality attributes, except perhaps IMF and  
24DL.

25

26**Key words:** activity scores, conflict-avoidance, intramuscular fat, pork, tenderness, water-  
27holding capacity

## 281. Introduction

29 Pig behavior is the aggregate of pig actions and reactions in response to internal and  
30 external stimuli. Understanding and selecting for beneficial behaviors is very important for  
31 successful management, performance, economical return, and overall pig welfare. Individual  
32 genetic variance exists in behavioral traits and so, these traits can be used in selection  
33 programs (van Erp-van der Kooij, Kuijpers, van Eerdenburg, & Tielen, 2003; Turner et al.,  
34 2006; Holl, Rohrer, & Brown-Brandl, 2010). For example, a beneficial selection trait for pigs  
35 would be the ability to cope with pre-slaughter stress during the marketing process, or a  
36 reduction in aggression when group housed (Lawrence et al., 1991; Turner et al., 2006). At  
37 the same time, selection with a singular focus on performance traits may induce changes in  
38 behavior that are detrimental to the individual or group of pigs. For example, negative impacts  
39 in their feeding patterns (Young, Cai, & Dekkers, 2011) or increases in aggression (van Erp-  
40 van der Kooij et al., 2003) may result from such selection.

41 At Iowa State University, a line of purebred Yorkshire pigs has been selected for  
42 decreased residual feed intake (RFI), alongside a randomly bred control line. After 4  
43 generations of selection, the Low RFI line required 6% less feed for the same amount of  
44 growth and backfat (Cai, Casey, & Dekkers, 2008). Sadler, Johnson, Lonergan, Nettleton, &  
45 Dekkers (2011) reported behavioral differences between the two genetic lines, with Low RFI  
46 gilts becoming less active. However, the relationship between feeding patterns and conflict-  
47 avoidance behaviors (within the pen and around resources) of Low RFI pigs on their final  
48 meat quality is not well understood. Therefore, the objective of this investigation was to  
49 determine the extent to which on-farm feeding and social behaviors affect fresh pork loin  
50 composition and quality using principal component analysis.

51

52

## 532. Materials and methods

### 542.1. Animals

55 All procedures involving live animals were approved by the Iowa State University  
56Animal Care and Use Committee (approval number 12-07-6482-S). Data from 192 purebred  
57Yorkshire gilts were used. These gilts belonged to a selection experiment for decreased RFI,  
58conducted from April 15 to August 14, 2008. One-half of the gilts were from a line that had  
59been selectively bred for decreased RFI over 5 generations (Low RFI) and the other one-half  
60from a randomly selected bred control line. Development of these lines was described in Cai  
61et al. (2008). The experimental design was a randomized complete block design, with pen as  
62block and individual pig as the experimental unit. Gilts were placed on test in 2 groups and  
63housed in 12 finishing pens with 8 pigs from each line in each pen at an average of 98.9 (SD  
648.2) d of age and 40.3 (SD 5.8) kg. They were fed *ad libitum* a diet formulated to meet or  
65exceed nutrient requirements. Gilts were slaughtered in a commercial facility at an average of  
66214.2 (SD 16.0) d of age and with an average body weight of 111.7 (SD 6.6) kg.

67

### 682.2. Feeding patterns

69 Gilt feeding patterns of 173 gilts were collected using an electronic single-space feeder  
70(FIRE, Osborne Industries Inc., Osborne, KS). Feed intake was recorded one week after  
71placement and until the first gilts reached the targeted market weight of 110 kg. Average daily  
72feed intake was derived by summing feed intake of each pig per day and averaging across  
73days. Average number of visits to the feeder per day was calculated by averaging the number  
74of visits per day by pig. Average feed intake per visit to the feeder was calculated by  
75averaging feed consumption by visits across days. Average occupation time per day and  
76average occupation time per visit were calculated in a similar manner as daily feed intake and

77 feed intake per visit. Average feed intake rate was obtained by dividing the amount of feed  
78 consumed by the time spent in the feeder and then averaging the individual visit feeding rates.  
79

### 80 2.3. *Scale activity scores*

81       Gilts were evaluated for scale activity when they were weighed. Scale activity scores  
82 were collected for individual gilts once the weigh scale back gate was closed. Scale activity  
83 was on a 1 through 5 scale (1 = calm, minimal movement; 2 = calm movement, including the  
84 gilt walking forward and backward at a slow pace; 3 = continuous fast movement, including  
85 quickly walking forward and backward; 4 = continuous rapid movement and vocalizing; 5 =  
86 continuous rapid movement and an escape attempt). This scale activity score was modified  
87 from Rempel, Rohrer, & Brown-Brandl (2009). Two trained researchers assigned two scale  
88 activity scores to gilts, and the mean value was used. The successive evaluations took place at  
89 the same established measurement/evaluation periods for all animals (called rounds). They  
90 started one week after placement (round 1) and subsequent evaluation periods (rounds 2 to 10)  
91 took place every two weeks until gilts reached their targeted market weight. Most gilts  
92 underwent a minimum of 7 evaluation rounds ( $n = 188$ ).

93

### 94 2.4. *Conflict and avoidance interactions in the home pen*

95       Video was collected on the day of placement and then every four weeks until the end of  
96 the study, for a total of 4 recordings. Video was collected from 0800 h to 2000 h (12 h), and  
97 then the four most active hours of the day were used. The four pre-determined active hours  
98 were 0700 to 0900 and 1600 to 1800 h. This resulted in 16 h of video/gilt. Gilts were  
99 individually marked with an animal-safe paint stick (Prima Tech Retractable Marking Sticks,  
100 Prima Tech, Kenansville, NC) on their backs the day before recording. Twelve color cameras  
101 (Panasonic, model WV-CP484, Matsushita Co. Ltd., Kadoma, Japan) were placed over the

102pens and video was collected onto a DVR (Reco, Darim Vision, Pleasanton, CA) at 10  
103frames/s (Sadler et al., 2011). Seven mutually exclusive conflict-avoidance behavioral events  
104were scored that occurred in the home pen (Table 1). The number of conflict-avoidance events  
105that occurred within one gilt body length around the feeder or drinker was recorded. Gilt  
106behaviors were collected by two experienced observers using the Observer software (The  
107Observer, version 5.0.31 Noldus Information Technology, Wageningen, the Netherlands).  
108Training was conducted to ensure reliability and a final agreement of 98% was reached.

109

#### 1102.5. *Meat quality*

111 Meat quality traits were measured in loin chops from 169 gilts (Smith et al., 2011).  
112Ultimate pH was measured at 48 h postmortem using a Hanna 9025 pH/ORP meter (Hanna  
113Instruments, Woonsocket, RI) with a penetration probe. Boneless chops were trimmed free of  
114subcutaneous adipose tissue and were homogenized and prepared to measure intramuscular fat  
115content (IMF) (AOAC, 1990). Hunter L, a, and b values were determined on two chops in  
116triplicate at 1 d postmortem using a calibrated Hunter Labscan colorimeter (Hunter  
117Association Laboratories Inc., Reston, VA). The colorimeter utilized a C10 illuminant to  
118obtain color scores using a 10° observer and 1.27-cm aperture. The 6 color readings were used  
119to calculate the average value for each chop. Drip loss (DL) was determined at 3 d  
120postmortem on two chops per loin. Chops were trimmed of external fat, weighed, and stored  
121in a sealed plastic bag at 4 °C. After 24 h of storage, the liquid lost was removed from each  
122bag, the chops were blotted of excess moisture and reweighed, and DL was calculated as the  
123percentage of liquid lost with respect to the original weight of the chops. Water-holding  
124capacity (WHC) was assessed using a centrifugation method, also at 3 d postmortem.  
125Duplicate 10-g minced samples were placed into centrifuge tubes and centrifuged for 10 min  
126at 40,000 g at 4 °C. After centrifugation, the liquid was removed, and WHC was recorded as

percentage of the final weight of the samples in respect to the original weight. A trained sensory panel ( $n = 4$ ) scored cooked chops for sensory quality traits at 7 to 10 d postmortem. The chops were cooked on clamshell grills to an internal temperature of 70 °C. The temperature of each chop was monitored individually using thermocouples (Omega Engineering Inc., Stamford, CT). The chops were cooled to room temperature before analysis. Four cubes were cut from the center of the chop and each panelist evaluated the samples for the cooked chops juiciness (1 = not juicy; 15 = very juicy), tenderness (1 = not tender; 15 = very tender), chewiness (1 = not chewy; 15 = very chewy), and flavor (1 = little pork flavor, bland; 15 = extremely flavorful, abundant pork flavor). Sensory data were recorded using a computerized sensory software system (Compusense five 4.6, Compusense, Inc., Guelph, Ontario, Canada).

138

## 2.6. Principal component analysis

A principal component analysis (PCA) was performed using the statistic package JMP 8 (SAS Institute Inc., Cary, NC) with the data of both lines together. The correlation matrix between scale activity scores was examined to reduce the high number of variables in the analysis. Moderate correlations were observed among the scale activity scores in the initial rounds (e.g., mean correlation through rounds 1 to 4 was 0.26, SD 0.06) and in the last rounds (e.g., mean correlation through rounds 6 to 9 was 0.29, SD 0.08), but the correlations between initial and final rounds were low (mean correlation between these two groups of rounds was 0.12, SD 0.09). Scale activity scores from the first three rounds were chosen to represent the scale activity at the beginning of the trial (early fattening period). As the number of rounds that each gilt underwent varied from 7 to 10, the scale activity at the end of the trial (later fattening period) was represented by scale activity scores from the three last rounds that each gilt underwent before slaughter, involving information from rounds 5 to 10 depending on the



152animal. The mean correlations among the scale activity scores in the PCA were 0.26 (SD  
1530.06) in the first to third rounds and 0.27 (SD 0.10) in the second to last to ultimate rounds,  
154but only 0.09 (SD 0.06) between both groups. A summary of the variables of each category  
155included in the PCA is given in Tables 2 to 5. The coefficients (loadings) of the eigenvectors  
156for the first three principal components were determined (Karlsson, 1992). The relevance of  
157each variable in each principal component was calculated as the percentage of the absolute  
158value of its loading with respect to the sum of the absolute values of all the loadings in the  
159eigenvector (Karlsson, 1992). Based on the obtained relevance values, we considered a  
160variable as represented enough in the principal component if its relative relevance was above  
1614.0%. Possible line trends were assessed using a t-test of their differences ( $P \leq 0.05$ ), both for  
162the individual traits (Tables 2 to 5) and the principal component scores, and by inspection of  
163the distribution in the biplot of the principal component scores of the gilts.

164

### 1653. Results

166 The loadings of the eigenvectors and the relevance of each loading for the three main  
167principal components are presented in Table 6. The first principal component (PC1) explained  
16811.1% of total variance. The most important meat quality traits in PC1 were IMF and WHC,  
169followed by DL, pH, and Hunter L. Feed intake variables were also relevant in PC1, with the  
170exception of occupation time per day and feed intake rate. The scale activity scores in the  
171third round and at the end of the trial also showed high loadings, but not in the first and  
172second rounds.

173 The second principal component (PC2) explained 9.1% of total variance. The trained  
174sensory panel scores for organoleptic quality were strongly represented in PC2. The loading  
175for DL was also above the fixed threshold for relevance. Apart from these meat quality traits,  
176only amount of feed intake (daily and per visit) was relevant.

177 The third principal component (PC3) explained 8.2% of total variance and accounted for  
178a combination of variables including IMF and Hunter b, as well as occupation time and  
179number of visits per day, amount of feed intake per visit, feed intake rate, the number of times  
180that gilts engaged in fight, bully, and head knock, and the number of times that these conflict-  
181avoidance interactions took place around the feeder.

182 The PC1 and PC3 scores of the Low RFI gilts were significantly lower than those of the  
183control gilts ( $P < 0.01$ ), but not for PC2 (data not shown). The main variables in PC1 and PC3  
184are represented in the biplot (Fig. 1). Although overlapping, the Low RFI gilts clustered in the  
185lower left area and the control ones in the upper right. This separation trend was mainly  
186attributable to IMF and feeding pattern variables.

187

#### 1884. Discussion

189 Due to the large number of variables and the low correlations among groups of variables  
190(data not shown), each principal component explained a low percentage of total variance. This  
191situation forced us to adopt a low threshold for relative relevance ( $>4.0\%$ ) to consider or reject  
192a variable as represented enough in each principal component. Because the PCA was  
193performed with data of both lines together, results refer to the whole population, but they must  
194be interpreted with caution in light of the low percentage of total variance explained. Previous  
195studies have also found low and mostly insignificant phenotypic correlations among  
196performance (e.g., van Erp-van der Kooij et al., 2003; Velie et al., 2009; Holl et al., 2010;  
197Yoder et al., 2011) or meat quality (e.g., Beattie, O'Connell, & Moss, 2000; Klont et al., 2001;  
198Morrison, Johnston & Hillbrands, 2007; D'Eath et al., 2010) and behavioral traits.

199

2004.1. *Feeding patterns and relationship to final meat quality attributes*

201       The PC1 indicated that IMF was positively related with the amount of feed intake and  
202negatively with the frequency of the visits to the feeder. Gilts that ate more, both daily and per  
203visit, deposited more IMF. The positive relationship between feed consumption and carcass  
204fatness, including IMF, is well-established (de Vries, van der Wal, Long, Eikelenboom, &  
205Merks, 1994; Gilbert et al., 2007; Cai et al., 2008). These gilts also tended to visit the feeder  
206less times per day than the leaner gilts but to occupy them longer, which is in agreement with  
207Von Felde, Roehe, Looft, & Kalm (1996), Rauw, Soler, Tibau, Reixach, & Gomez Raya  
208(2006), and Young et al. (2011). Gilts with more fat tended to have lower pH and WHC and  
209greater DL. The positive relationship of pH with WHC and negative with DL was in  
210agreement with previous findings (Huff-Lonergan & Lonergan, 2005). Knapp, Willam, &  
211Sölkner (1997) reported different trends depending on breed between IMF and the meat  
212quality traits pH at 45 min and DL. They found null phenotypic correlations in Yorkshire and  
213Pietrain, and unfavorable in Landrace, although a favorable relationship in Landrace, as well  
214as Duroc, was found in another study (Gjerlaug-Enger, Aass, Ødegård, & Vangen, 2010).  
215Other studies also reported null correlations between IMF and both pH and DL in Yorkshire  
216populations (de Vries et al., 1994) and in a Berkshire×Yorkshire cross (Huff-Lonergan et al.,  
2172002). Also in Yorkshire pigs, de Vries et al. (1994) and Gilbert et al. (2007) found positive  
218relationships of feed intake and RFI with pH and negative with DL. These relationships were  
219not strong for all the traits and inconsistent with our findings. Therefore, caution should be  
220taken before inferring the relationships of pH, WHC, and DL with IMF and feed intake from  
221PC1, due to the null phenotypic correlations generally found between these traits in Yorkshire  
222populations. The greater Hunter L values (lighter color) in meat from fatter gilts could be  
223attributable to the greater levels of IMF (Schwab, Baas, Stalder, & Mabry, 2006).

224 The PC2 mainly accounted for the scores by the trained sensory panel. The perception  
 225 of juiciness, tenderness, and flavor were positively related among them and with amount of  
 226 feed intake (both per day and per visit), and negatively with chewiness. According to PC2,  
 227 greater feed intake would lead to juicy, tender, not chewy, and flavorful meat, resulting in  
 228 enhanced overall sensory quality. There is a general agreement about the existence of a  
 229 favorable relationship between IMF and sensory traits (Huff-Lonergan et al., 2002; Wood et  
 230 al., 2008), but there is some controversy about its extent and some studies failed to find any  
 231 relationship. Lonergan et al. (2007) suggested that the effect of IMF could only be detected at  
 232 the range of pH between 5.50 and 5.80, corresponding to intermediate sensory quality meats.  
 233 Most of the samples in our study were within this pH interval (Table 2). As IMF was a  
 234 relevant trait in PC1 but not in PC2, it is unclear if IMF plays a part in increasing tenderness,  
 235 although both meat quality traits are enhanced by feed intake. The loading of DL was also  
 236 above the established relative relevance threshold but its relationship with the amount of feed  
 237 intake was inconsistent with the one displayed in PC1. Smith et al. (2011) reported greater  
 238 calpastatin activity in Low RFI gilts (that tended to eat less; see Fig. 1), resulting in less  
 239 postmortem degradation of the protein desmin by calpain proteinases. Postmortem  
 240 degradation of desmin is linked to tenderization during aging and increased WHC (Huff-  
 241 Lonergan, Zhang, & Lonergan, 2010). This would be consistent with the negative association  
 242 between DL and amount of feed intake found in PC2 but opposite to the loadings in PC1. The  
 243 nature of the possible association between reduced feed intake and less postmortem  
 244 proteolysis should be further assessed.

245

#### 246 4.2. Scale activity scores and relationship to final meat quality attributes

247 In PC1, the opposite signs of the loadings of scale activity scores with respect to IMF  
 248 and daily feed intake indicate that gilts with lower scale activity scores showed also greater

249IMF and daily feed intake. This finding was in agreement with the results by Holl et al. (2010)  
250and Yoder et al. (2011) showing a similar association of low scale activity scores with greater  
251growth rates and fatter carcasses (greater backfat thickness). Similarly, greater backtest scores  
252(number of attempts to escape when the piglet is put on its back and restrained to this  
253position) were reported to be associated to leaner carcasses by van Erp-van der Kooij et al.  
254(2003). It has been hypothesized that animals with greater scale activity scores (and similar  
255tests scores) may have greater activity level and greater energy expenses. Previous work in  
256cattle by Nkrumah et al. (2007) showed an association of excitable temperament (more rapid  
257flight speed when exiting a squeeze chute) with reduced feed intake, slower growth, and  
258leaner carcasses. In tropically adapted cattle breeds, Kadel, Johnston, Burrow, Graser, &  
259Ferguson (2006) found that animals with more favorable chute scores and flight speed scores  
260had more tender meat. We did not find a relationship between scale activity scores and  
261tenderness. Kadel et al. (2006) also analyzed the relationship of what they described as  
262temperament with Minolta color space coordinates and cooking loss percentage, but their  
263analysis did not include any other meat quality traits. They found a negative relationship with  
264cooking loss percentage, which would be in agreement with our findings because Smith et al.  
265(2011) showed that DL and cooking loss percentage were positively correlated. In general, the  
266genotypic correlations between the scale activity scores and the meat quality traits previously  
267reported were higher than the phenotypic correlations, which were often not significant (Kadel  
268et al., 2006; Nkrumah et al., 2007; Yoder et al., 2011). Only the loadings for the third round  
269and for the rounds at the end of the trial were above the relevance threshold. The last scale  
270activity score rounds might be better indicators of meat quality attributes because they are  
271closer in time to processing.

272

2734.3. *Conflict and avoidance interactions in the home pen and relationship to feeding pattern*  
274*and final meat quality attributes*

275 In PC3, fighting, bullying, and head-knocking were relevant, together with events at the  
276feeder area. Push, chase, threat, avoidance, and events at the drinker occurred rarely and only  
277occurred in a few gilts in this trial and so, their variability was low. Other traits involved in  
278PC3 were IMF, Hunter b, scale activity score at the first round, and several feeding pattern  
279traits. A greater number of conflict-avoidance interactions were found to be associated with  
280greater IMF. We also found a positive association between conflict-avoidance interactions and  
281occupation time per day. An explanation for these relationships could be that gilts engaging in  
282more conflict-avoidance interactions might be dominant gilts that access the feeder more  
283frequently (Brouns & Edwards, 1994), while gilts with less conflict-avoidance interactions  
284might be lower in the hierarchy and spend less time close to the feeder. Unfortunately,  
285dominance and social hierarchy in our population was not testable, but dominance and  
286aggressive behaviors have been found to be positively correlated in previous reports  
287(McGlone, 1986). If this hypothesis was true, the positive associations also found with  
288number of visits per day and the negative associations with feed intake per visit would be  
289inconsistent with reports by McGlone (1986) and Brouns & Edwards (1994). These authors  
290observed that subordinate gilts were displaced more often from the feeder and had to visit it  
291more times and eat less per visit than their dominant counterparts. However, although the  
292loadings of PC3 for these two traits would contradict this, the loadings of PC1 (with the  
293opposite sign) would be in agreement with it, that is, that fatter gilts eat in fewer visits to the  
294feeder per day but eat more per visit. This inconsistency between PC1 and PC3 for both traits  
295could be due to spurious relationships, because their differences between lines were not  
296significant, as opposed to the strong differences for the other feeding pattern traits (Table 3;  
297Young et al., 2011). Regarding feed intake rate, according to PC3, dominant fat gilts would

298also eat slower than docile lean gilts. This would disagree with the results of Von Felde et al.  
299(1996) and Rauw et al. (2006) showing greater rate of feed intake is associated with greater  
300daily feed intake, growth rate and backfat thickness. The results suggest that conflict-  
301avoidance behavioral events in the home pen or around resources within a pen are not  
302associated with meat quality attributes except IMF.

303

## 304**5. Conclusion**

305       Gilts with greater daily feed intake tended to stay longer inside the feeder and had  
306increased IMF. The greater levels of IMF could be making the meat lighter in color and  
307enhancing the tenderness, juiciness, chewiness, and flavor. Low scale activity scores could be  
308related to greater IMF deposition but also to greater DL. Gilt number of conflict-avoidance  
309interactions were not good indicators for final meat quality attributes except IMF.

310

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315

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418

### Caption for Fig. 1

419**Fig. 1.** Biplot for the first and third principal components (PC1 and PC3, accounting for  
42011.1% and 8.2% of total variance, respectively). The rays represent the loadings of the most  
421relevant variables (Table 6) and the points represent the scores of the gilts from the Low RFI  
422and control lines.